# Chapter 4

# Breadth First Search, Dijkstra's Algorithm for Shortest Paths

OLD CS 473: Fundamental Algorithms, Spring 2015 January 29, 2015

## 4.1 Breadth First Search

#### 4.1.0.1 Breadth First Search (BFS)

#### Overview

- (A) BFS is obtained from BasicSearch by processing edges using a *queue* data structure.
- (B) It processes the vertices in the graph in the order of their shortest distance from the vertex s (the start vertex).

#### As such...

- (A) **DFS** good for exploring graph structure
- (B) **BFS** good for exploring distances

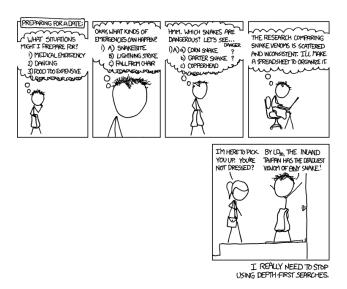
#### 4.1.0.2 Queue Data Structure

#### Queues

**queue**: list of elements which supports the operations:

- (A) **enqueue**: Adds an element to the end of the list
- (B) dequeue: Removes an element from the front of the list

Elements are extracted in *first-in first-out (FIFO)* order, i.e., elements are picked in the order in which they were inserted.



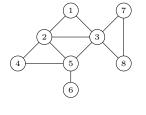
#### 4.1.0.3 BFS Algorithm

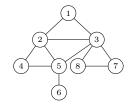
Given (undirected or directed) graph G = (V, E) and node  $s \in V$ 

```
\mathbf{BFS}(s)
Mark all vertices as unvisited
Initialize search tree T to be empty
Mark vertex s as visited
set Q to be the empty queue
\mathbf{enq}(s)
while Q is nonempty \mathbf{do}
u = \mathbf{deq}(Q)
for each vertex v \in \mathrm{Adj}(u)
if v is not visited then
add edge (u,v) to T
Mark v as visited and \mathbf{enq}(v)
```

**Proposition 4.1.1.** BFS(s) runs in O(n+m) time.

## 4.1.0.4 BFS: An Example in Undirected Graphs





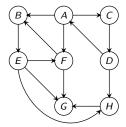
- 1. [1]
- $4. \quad [4,5,7,8]$
- 7. [8,6]

- [2,3]
- 5. [5,7,8]
- 8. [6]

- $3. \quad [3,4,5]$
- 6. [7,8,6]
- 9.

**BFS** tree is the set of black edges.

#### 4.1.0.5 BFS: An Example in Directed Graphs



#### 4.1.0.6 BFS with Distance

```
\begin{aligned} \mathbf{BFS}(s) \\ & \text{Mark all vertices as unvisited and for each } v \text{ set } \operatorname{dist}(v) = \infty \\ & \text{Initialize search tree } T \text{ to be empty} \\ & \text{Mark vertex } s \text{ as visited and set } \operatorname{dist}(s) = 0 \\ & \text{set } Q \text{ to be the empty queue} \\ & \mathbf{enq}(s) \\ & \mathbf{while } Q \text{ is nonempty } \mathbf{do} \\ & u = \mathbf{deq}(Q) \\ & \mathbf{for each vertex } v \in \operatorname{Adj}(u) \mathbf{\ do} \\ & \text{ if } v \text{ is not visited } \mathbf{\ do} \\ & \text{ add edge } (u,v) \text{ to } T \\ & \text{ Mark } v \text{ as visited, } \mathbf{enq}(v) \\ & \text{ and set } \operatorname{dist}(v) = \operatorname{dist}(u) + 1 \end{aligned}
```

#### 4.1.0.7 Properties of BFS: Undirected Graphs

**Proposition 4.1.2.** The following properties hold upon termination of BFS(s)

- (A) V(BFS tree comp.) = set vertices in connected component s.
- (B) If dist(u) < dist(v) then u is visited before v.
- (C)  $\forall u \in V$ ,  $\operatorname{dist}(u) = \text{the length of shortest path from } s \text{ to } u$ .
- (D) If  $u, v \in connected component of s$ , and e = uv is an edge of G, then either  $e \in \mathbf{BFS}$  tree, or  $|\operatorname{dist}(u) \operatorname{dist}(v)| \leq 1$ .

Proof: Exercise.

#### 4.1.0.8 Properties of BFS: <u>Directed</u> Graphs

**Proposition 4.1.3.** The following properties hold upon termination of  $T \leftarrow \mathbf{BFS}(s)$ :

- (A) For search tree T. V(T) = set of vertices reachable from s
- (B) If dist(u) < dist(v) then u is visited before v
- $(C) \ \forall u \in V(T): \operatorname{dist}(u) = \operatorname{length} \ \operatorname{of} \ \operatorname{shortest} \ \operatorname{path} \ \operatorname{from} \ s \ \operatorname{to} \ u$
- (D) If u is reachable from s,  $e = (u \rightarrow v) \in E(G)$ . Then either (i) e is an edge in the search tree, or (ii)  $\operatorname{dist}(v) - \operatorname{dist}(u) \leq 1$ .

Not necessarily the case that  $dist(u) - dist(v) \le 1$ .

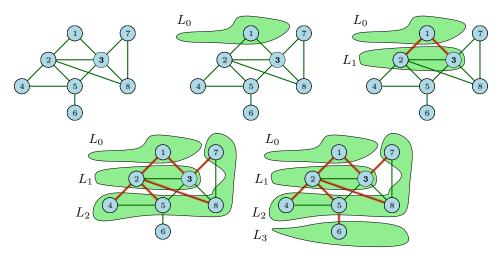
*Proof*: Exercise.

#### 4.1.0.9 BFS with Layers

```
\begin{aligned} \mathbf{BFSLayers}(s): \\ &\text{Mark all vertices as unvisited and initialize } T \text{ to be empty} \\ &\text{Mark } s \text{ as visited and set } L_0 = \{s\} \\ &i = 0 \\ &\text{while } L_i \text{ is not empty } \mathbf{do} \\ &\text{initialize } L_{i+1} \text{ to be an empty list} \\ &\text{ for each } u \text{ in } L_i \text{ do} \\ &\text{ for each edge } (u,v) \in \mathrm{Adj}(u) \text{ do} \\ &\text{ if } v \text{ is not visited} \\ &\text{ mark } v \text{ as visited} \\ &\text{ add } (u,v) \text{ to tree } T \\ &\text{ add } v \text{ to } L_{i+1} \end{aligned}
```

Running time: O(n+m)

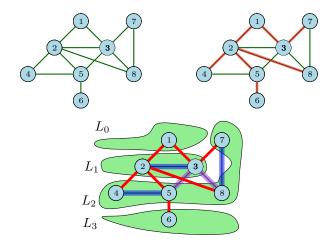
#### 4.1.0.10 Example



#### 4.1.0.11 BFS with Layers: Properties

**Proposition 4.1.4.** The following properties hold on termination of BFSLayers(s).

- (A) BFSLayers(s) outputs a BFS tree
- (B)  $L_i$  is the set of vertices at distance exactly i from s
- (C) If G is undirected, each edge e = uv is one of three types:
  - (A) tree edge between two consecutive layers
  - (B) non-tree forward/backward edge between two consecutive layers
  - (C) non-tree **cross-edge** with both u, v in same layer
  - (D)  $\Longrightarrow$  Every edge in the graph is either between two vertices that are either (i) in the same layer, or (ii) in two consecutive layers.



4.1.0.12 Example: Tree/cross/forward (backward) edges

## 4.1.1 BFS with Layers: Properties

#### 4.1.1.1 For directed graphs

**Proposition 4.1.5.** The following properties hold on termination of BFSLayers(s), if G is directed.

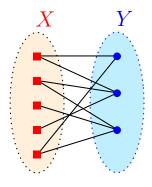
For each edge  $e = (u \rightarrow v)$  is one of four types:

- (A) a tree edge between consecutive layers,  $u \in L_i, v \in L_{i+1}$  for some  $i \ge 0$
- (B) a non-tree forward edge between consecutive layers
- (C) a non-tree backward edge
- (D) a **cross-edge** with both u, v in same layer

# 4.2 Bipartite Graphs and an application of BFS

## 4.2.0.2 Bipartite Graphs

**Definition 4.2.1 (Bipartite Graph).** Undirected graph G = (V, E) is a bipartite graph if V can be partitioned into X and Y s.t. all edges in E are between X and Y.



#### 4.2.0.3 Bipartite Graph Characterization

Question When is a graph bipartite?

Proposition 4.2.2. Every tree is a bipartite graph.

*Proof*: Root tree T at some node r. Let  $L_i$  be all nodes at level i, that is,  $L_i$  is all nodes at distance i from root r. Now define X to be all nodes at even levels and Y to be all nodes at odd level. Only edges in T are between levels.

**Proposition 4.2.3.** An odd length cycle is not bipartite.

#### 4.2.0.4 Odd Cycles are not Bipartite

**Proposition 4.2.4.** An odd length cycle is not bipartite.

*Proof*: Let  $C = u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_{2k+1}, u_1$  be an odd cycle. Suppose C is a bipartite graph and let X, Y be the partition. Without loss of generality  $u_1 \in X$ . Implies  $u_2 \in Y$ . Implies  $u_3 \in X$ . Inductively,  $u_i \in X$  if i is odd  $u_i \in Y$  if i is even. But  $\{u_1, u_{2k+1}\}$  is an edge and both belong to X!

#### 4.2.0.5 Subgraphs

**Definition 4.2.5.** Given a graph G = (V, E) a subgraph of G is another graph H = (V', E') where  $V' \subseteq V$  and  $E' \subseteq E$ .

**Proposition 4.2.6.** If an undirected G is bipartite then any subgraph H of G is also bipartite.

**Proposition 4.2.7.** An undirected graph G is not bipartite if G has an odd cycle C as a subgraph.

*Proof*: If G is bipartite then since C is a subgraph, C is also bipartite (by above proposition). However, C is not bipartite!

#### 4.2.0.6 Bipartite Graph Characterization

**Theorem 4.2.8.** An undirected graph G is bipartite  $\iff$  it has no odd length cycle as subgraph.

*Proof*: Only If: G has an odd cycle implies G is not bipartite.

If: G has no odd length cycle. Assume without loss of generality that G is connected.

- (A) Pick u arbitrarily and do BFS(u)
- (B)  $X = \bigcup_{i \text{ is even}} L_i \text{ and } Y = \bigcup_{i \text{ is odd}} L_i$
- (C) Claim: X and Y is a valid partition if G has no odd length cycle.

#### 4.2.0.7 Proof of Claim

Claim 4.2.9. In BFS(u) if  $a, b \in L_i$  and  $ab \in E(G)$  then there is an odd length cycle containing ab.

*Proof*: Let v be least common ancestor of a, b in BFS tree T.

v is in some level j < i (could be u itself).

Path from  $v \rightsquigarrow a$  in T is of length j - i.

Path from  $v \rightsquigarrow b$  in T is of length j - i.

These two paths plus (a, b) forms an odd cycle of length 2(j - i) + 1.

#### 4.2.0.8 Proof of Claim: Figure

#### 4.2.0.9 Another tidbit

**Corollary 4.2.10.** There is an O(n+m) time algorithm to check if G is bipartite and output an odd cycle if it is not.

## 4.3 Shortest Paths and Dijkstra's Algorithm

#### 4.3.0.10 Shortest Path Problems

Shortest Path Problems

**Input** A (undirected or directed) graph G = (V, E) with edge lengths (or costs). For edge  $e = (u \to v)$ ,  $\ell(e) = \ell(u \to v)$  is its length.

- (A) Given nodes s, t find shortest path from s to t.
- (B) Given node s find shortest path from s to all other nodes.
- (C) Find shortest paths for all pairs of nodes. Many applications!

## 4.3.1 Single-Source Shortest Paths:

#### 4.3.1.1 Non-Negative Edge Lengths

Single-Source Shortest Path Problems

- (A) **Input**: A (undirected or directed) graph G = (V, E) with **non-negative** edge lengths. For edge  $e = (u \to v)$ ,  $\ell(e) = \ell(u \to v)$  is its length.
- (B) Given nodes s, t find shortest path from s to t.
- (C) Given node s find shortest path from s to all other nodes.
- (A) Restrict attention to directed graphs
- (B) Undirected graph problem can be reduced to directed graph problem how?
  - (A) Given undirected graph G, create a new directed graph G' by replacing each edge  $\{u,v\}$  in G by  $(u \to v)$  and (v,u) in G'.
  - (B) set  $\ell(u \to v) = \ell(v, u) = \ell(\{u, v\})$
  - (C) Exercise: show reduction works

#### 4.3.1.2 Single-Source Shortest Paths via BFS

- (A) **Special case:** All edge lengths are 1.
  - (A) Run BFS(s) to get shortest path distances from s to all other nodes.
  - (B) O(m+n) time algorithm.
- (B) **Special case:** Suppose  $\ell(e)$  is an integer for all e?

  Can we use **BFS**? Reduce to unit edge-length problem by placing  $\ell(e) 1$  dummy nodes on e.
- (C) Let  $L = \max_{e} \ell(e)$ . New graph has O(mL) edges and O(mL + n) nodes. **BFS** takes O(mL + n) time. Not efficient if L is large.

#### 4.3.1.3 Towards an algorithm

Why does **BFS** work?

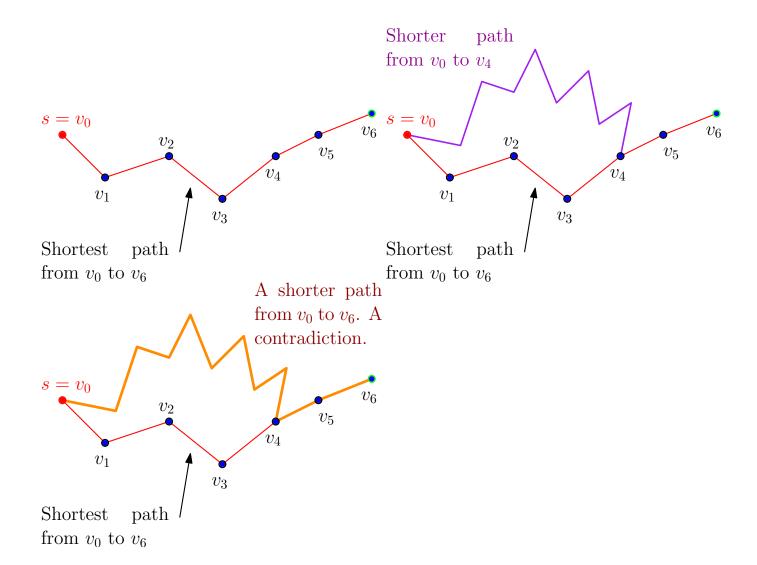
BFS(s) explores nodes in increasing distance from s

**Lemma 4.3.1.** Let G be a directed graph with non-negative edge lengths. Let  $\operatorname{dist}(s, v)$  denote the shortest path length from s to v. If  $s = v_0 \to v_1 \to v_2 \to \ldots \to v_k$  is a shortest path from s to  $v_k$  then for  $1 \le i < k$ :

- (A)  $s = v_0 \rightarrow v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow v_i$  is a shortest path from s to  $v_i$
- (B)  $\operatorname{dist}(s, v_i) \leq \operatorname{dist}(s, v_k)$ .

*Proof*: Suppose not. Then for some i < k there is a path P' from s to  $v_i$  of length strictly less than that of  $s = v_0 \to v_1 \to \ldots \to v_i$ . Then P' concatenated with  $v_i \to v_{i+1} \ldots \to v_k$  contains a strictly shorter path to  $v_k$  than  $s = v_0 \to v_1 \ldots \to v_k$ .

## 4.3.1.4 A proof by picture



## 4.3.1.5 A Basic Strategy

Explore vertices in increasing order of distance from s:

(For simplicity assume that nodes are at different distances from s and that no edge has zero length)

```
Initialize for each node v, \operatorname{dist}(s,v) = \infty
Initialize S = \emptyset,
for i = 1 to |V| do

(* Invariant: S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s *)

Among nodes in V \setminus S, find the node v that is the ith closest to s
Update \operatorname{dist}(s,v)
S = S \cup \{v\}
```

How can we implement the step in the for loop?

#### 4.3.1.6 Finding the *i*th closest node

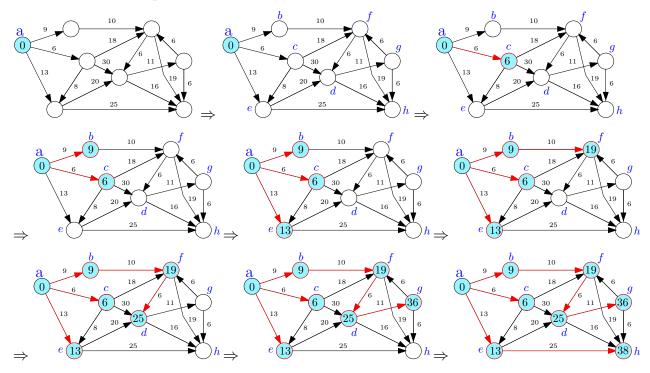
- (A) S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s
- (B) Want to find the *i*th closest node from V S. What do we know about the *i*th closest node?

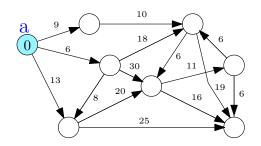
Claim 4.3.2. Let P be a shortest path from s to v where v is the ith closest node. Then, all intermediate nodes in P belong to S.

*Proof*: If P had an intermediate node u not in S then u will be closer to s than v. Implies v is not the ith closest node to s - recall that S already has the i-1 closest nodes.

## 4.3.2 Finding the *i*th closest node repeatedly

#### **4.3.2.1** An example





#### 4.3.2.2 Finding the *i*th closest node

Corollary 4.3.3. The ith closest node is adjacent to S.

#### 4.3.2.3 Finding the *i*th closest node

- (A) S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s
- (B) Want to find the *i*th closest node from V S.
- (C) For each  $u \in V \setminus S$  let P(s, u, S) be a shortest path from s to u using only nodes in S as intermediate vertices.
- (D) Let d'(s, u) be the length of P(s, u, S)
- (E) Observations: for each  $u \in V S$ ,
  - (A)  $dist(s, u) \leq d'(s, u)$  since we are constraining the paths
  - (B)  $d'(s, u) = \min_{a \in S} (\operatorname{dist}(s, a) + \ell(a, u))$  Why?
- (F) **Lemma 4.3.4.** If v is the ith closest node to s, then d'(s, v) = dist(s, v).

#### 4.3.2.4 Finding the *i*th closest node

#### Lemma 4.3.5. Given:

- (A) S: Set of i-1 closest nodes to s.
- (B)  $d'(s, u) = \min_{x \in S} (\operatorname{dist}(s, x) + \ell(x, u))$

If v is an ith closest node to s, then d'(s,v) = dist(s,v).

*Proof*: Let v be the ith closest node to s. Then there is a shortest path P from s to v that contains only nodes in S as intermediate nodes (see previous claim). Therefore  $d'(s,v) = \operatorname{dist}(s,v)$ .

#### 4.3.2.5 Finding the *i*th closest node

**Lemma 4.3.6.** If v is an ith closest node to s, then d'(s,v) = dist(s,v).

Corollary 4.3.7. The ith closest node to s is the node  $v \in V - S$  such that  $d'(s, v) = \min_{u \in V - S} d'(s, u)$ .

*Proof*: For every node  $u \in V - S$ ,  $\operatorname{dist}(s, u) \leq d'(s, u)$  and for the *i*th closest node v,  $\operatorname{dist}(s, v) = d'(s, v)$ . Moreover,  $\operatorname{dist}(s, u) \geq \operatorname{dist}(s, v)$  for each  $u \in V - S$ .

#### 4.3.2.6 Candidate algorithm for shortest path

```
Initialize for each node v\colon \operatorname{dist}(s,v)=\infty
Initialize S=\emptyset, d'(s,s)=0
for i=1 to |V| do

(* Invariant: S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s *)

(* Invariant: d'(s,u) is shortest path distance from u to s using only S as intermediate nodes*)

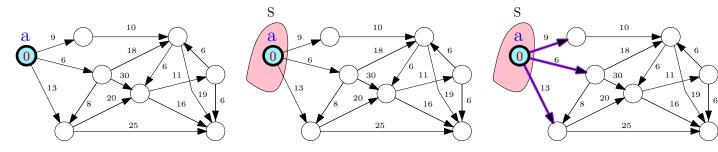
Let v be such that d'(s,v)=\min_{u\in V-S}d'(s,u)
\operatorname{dist}(s,v)=d'(s,v)
S=S\cup\{v\}
for each node u in V\setminus S do
d'(s,u) \Leftarrow \min_{a\in S} \left(\operatorname{dist}(s,a)+\ell(a,u)\right)
```

Correctness: By induction on i using previous lemmas.

Running time:  $O(n \cdot (n+m))$  time.

(A) n outer iterations. In each iteration, d'(s, u) for each u by scanning all edges out of nodes in S; O(m+n) time/iteration.

#### 4.3.2.7 Example



#### 4.3.2.8 Improved Algorithm

- (A) Main work is to compute the d'(s, u) values in each iteration
- (B) d'(s, u) changes from iteration i to i + 1 only because of the node v that is added to S in iteration i.

```
Initialize for each node v, \operatorname{dist}(s,v) = d'(s,v) = \infty

Initialize S = \emptyset, \operatorname{d}'(s,s) = 0

for i = 1 to |V| do

// S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s,

// and the values of d'(s,u) are current v be node realizing d'(s,v) = \min_{u \in V-S} d'(s,u) \operatorname{dist}(s,v) = d'(s,v) S = S \cup \{v\}

Update d'(s,u) for each u in V-S as follows: d'(s,u) = \min \left(d'(s,u), \operatorname{dist}(s,v) + \ell(v,u)\right)
```

Running time:  $O(m+n^2)$  time.

- (A) n outer iterations and in each iteration following steps
- (B) updating d'(s, u) after v added takes O(deg(v)) time so total work is O(m) since a node enters S only once
- (C) Finding v from d'(s, u) values is O(n) time

#### 4.3.2.9 Dijkstra's Algorithm

- (A) eliminate d'(s, u) and let dist(s, u) maintain it
- (B) update dist values after adding v by scanning edges out of v

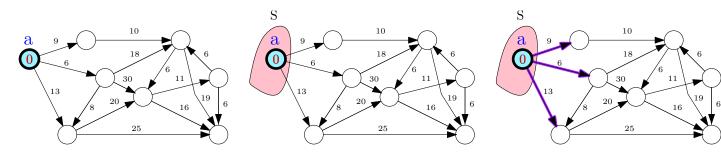
```
Initialize for each node v, \operatorname{dist}(s,v) = \infty
Initialize S = \{\}, \operatorname{dist}(s,s) = 0
for i = 1 to |V| do

Let v be such that \operatorname{dist}(s,v) = \min_{u \in V - S} \operatorname{dist}(s,u)
S = S \cup \{v\}
for each u in \operatorname{Adj}(v) do
\operatorname{dist}(s,u) = \min(\operatorname{dist}(s,u), \operatorname{dist}(s,v) + \ell(v,u))
```

**Priority Queues** to maintain *dist* values for faster running time

- (A) Using heaps and standard priority queues:  $O((m+n)\log n)$
- (B) Using Fibonacci heaps:  $O(m + n \log n)$ .

#### 4.3.2.10 Example: Dijkstra algorithm in action



## 4.3.3 Priority Queues

#### 4.3.3.1 Priority Queues

Data structure to store a set S of n elements where each element  $v \in S$  has an associated real/integer key k(v) such that the following operations:

- (A) **makePQ**: create an empty queue.
- (B) **findMin**: find the minimum key in S.
- (C) extractMin: Remove  $v \in S$  with smallest key and return it.
- (D) **insert**(v, k(v)): Add new element v with key k(v) to S.
- (E) **delete**(v): Remove element v from S.
- (F) **decreaseKey**(v, k'(v)): decrease key of v from k(v) (current key) to k'(v) (new key). Assumption:  $k'(v) \le k(v)$ .

(G) meld: merge two separate priority queues into one.

All operations can be performed in  $O(\log n)$  time.

decreaseKey is implemented via delete and insert.

#### 4.3.3.2 Dijkstra's Algorithm using Priority Queues

```
\begin{split} Q & \Leftarrow \mathbf{makePQ}() \\ \mathbf{insert}(Q,\ (s,0)) \\ \mathbf{for}\ \mathbf{each}\ \mathbf{node}\ u \neq s\ \mathbf{do} \\ \mathbf{insert}(Q,\ (u,\infty)) \\ S & \Leftarrow \emptyset \\ \mathbf{for}\ i = 1\ \mathbf{to}\ |V|\ \mathbf{do} \\ (v, \mathrm{dist}(s,v)) & = \mathrm{extractMin}(\mathbb{Q}) \\ S & = S \cup \{v\} \\ \mathbf{for}\ \mathbf{each}\ u\ \mathbf{in}\ \mathrm{Adj}(v)\ \mathbf{do} \\ \mathbf{decreaseKey}([)]Q,\ (u, \min(\mathrm{dist}(s,u),\ \mathrm{dist}(s,v) + \ell(v,u)))\,. \end{split}
```

Priority Queue operations:

- (A) O(n) insert operations
- (B) O(n) extractMin operations
- (C) O(m) decreaseKey operations

#### 4.3.3.3 Implementing Priority Queues via Heaps

Using Heaps Store elements in a heap based on the key value

(A) All operations can be done in  $O(\log n)$  time Dijkstra's algorithm can be implemented in  $O((n+m)\log n)$  time.

#### 4.3.3.4 Priority Queues: Fibonacci Heaps/Relaxed Heaps

Fibonacci Heaps

- (A) extractMin, delete in  $O(\log n)$  time.
- (B) **insert** in O(1) amortized time.
- (C) decreaseKey in O(1) amortized time:  $\ell$  decreaseKey operations for  $\ell \geq n$  take together  $O(\ell)$  time
- (D) Relaxed Heaps: **decreaseKey** in O(1) worst case time but at the expense of **meld** (not necessary for Dijkstra's algorithm)
- (A) Dijkstra's algorithm can be implemented in  $O(n \log n + m)$  time. If  $m = \Omega(n \log n)$ , running time is linear in input size.
- (B) Data structures are complicated to analyze/implement. Recent work has obtained data structures that are easier to analyze and implement, and perform well in practice. Rank-Pairing Heaps (European Symposium on Algorithms, September 2009!)

#### 4.3.3.5 Shortest Path Tree

Dijkstra's algorithm finds the shortest path distances from s to V.

Question: How do we find the paths themselves?

```
Q = \mathbf{makePQ}()
\mathbf{insert}(Q, (s, 0))
\mathrm{prev}(s) \Leftarrow null
\mathbf{for} \ \mathbf{each} \ \mathbf{node} \ u \neq s \ \mathbf{do}
\mathbf{insert}(Q, (u, \infty))
\mathrm{prev}(u) \Leftarrow \mathbf{null}
S = \emptyset
\mathbf{for} \ i = 1 \ \mathbf{to} \ |V| \ \mathbf{do}
(v, \mathrm{dist}(s, v)) = extractMin(Q)
S = S \cup \{v\}
\mathbf{for} \ \mathbf{each} \ u \ \mathbf{in} \ \mathrm{Adj}(v) \ \mathbf{do}
\mathbf{if} \ (\mathrm{dist}(s, v) + \ell(v, u) < \mathrm{dist}(s, u) \ ) \ \mathbf{then}
\mathbf{decreaseKey}(Q, (u, \mathrm{dist}(s, v) + \ell(v, u)) \ )
\mathrm{prev}(u) = v
```

#### 4.3.3.6 Shortest Path Tree

**Lemma 4.3.8.** The edge set (u, prev(u)) is the reverse of a shortest path tree rooted at s. For each u, the reverse of the path from u to s in the tree is a shortest path from s to u.

*Proof*:[Proof Sketch.]

- (A) The edge set  $\{(u, \text{prev}(u)) \mid u \in V\}$  induces a directed in-tree rooted at s (Why?)
- (B) Use induction on |S| to argue that the tree is a shortest path tree for nodes in V.

#### 4.3.3.7 Shortest paths to s

Dijkstra's algorithm gives shortest paths from s to all nodes in V.

How do we find shortest paths from all of V to s?

- (A) In undirected graphs shortest path from s to u is a shortest path from u to s so there is no need to distinguish.
- (B) In directed graphs, use Dijkstra's algorithm in  $G^{\text{rev}}$ !